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curious document will serve to shew the real state of the case, and in some measure, to develope the grounds of the misconception. The emigrations of the Chinese take place chiefly from the four southern maritime provinces. The emigrants direct their course to every neighbouring country where there is any hope of finding employment and protection. They are excluded, like the European nations, from settling in Japan, on political grounds; the government of Cochin-China affords them no great encouragement, from the same reason, and the Dutch and Spanish governments of Java and the Philippines have always looked on them with much suspicion. Distance, and the existence of a dense and comparatively industrious population, exclude them from the British possessions in Hindooostan, where there are only a few shoemakers and other artizans from that country, and these confined to Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay.

Every emigrant who leaves China, does so with the intention of returning to it, although comparatively few are able to accomplish this object. The expense of emigration to the countries to which the Chinese usually resort, amounts to very little. Yet even the slender sum required, is commonly paid from the fruits of the emigrant's labour on his arrival, and seldom in advance. They are invariably of the labouring classes, and their whole equipment for the voyage consists of little else than the coat on their back, a bundle of old clothes, and a dirty mat and pillow to sleep on. They no sooner land than their condition is wonderfully improved. They meet their countrymen, and find immediate employment in a congenial climate where the wages of labour are, perhaps, three times as high as in China, and the necessaries of life cheaper by half.

The Chinese are not only intellectually, but physically, superior to the nations among whom they settle. A Chinese is, at least, two inches taller than a Siamese, and by three inches taller than a Cochin-Chinese, a Malay, or a Javane, and his frame is proportionably strong and well built. Their superiority in personal skill, dexterity, and ingenuity, is still greater. The wages of a Chinese labourer at Sincapore, are eight dollars a month, and of a Malay, four; thus proving the work of the former to be of double the value of that of the latter.

The different classes of Chinese settlers not only live apart and keep distinct from those of other nations, but from each other. There is a wide difference between their character, habits, and manners, according to the provinces from which they proceed. The emigrants from the town of Canton, besides being addicted to mercantile pursuits, are the best artizans, and are much disposed to enter into mining speculations. It is they who are chiefly employed in working the silver mines of Tonquin, the gold mines of Borneo, and of the Malay peninsula, and the tin mines of the latter country, and of Banca. The Chinese of Macao, and the other islands, are held in very little repute by the rest of their countrymen, but those of the mountainous districts, who are numerous, are the lowest in rank. Their most frequent employment is that of fishermen and mariners; and it is from their ranks that European shipping, when in want, have occasionally received hands. Of all the Chinese, these are the most noisy and unruly.

The Chinese settlers, of whatever class,

engage with much eagerness in agricultural employments, seldom, however, unless through necessity, as day labourers. They conduct, almost exclusively, the cultivation and manufacture of the catechu or terra Japonica in the strait of Malacca, the pepper cultivation of Siam, and the culture of the cane, and the manufacture of sugar in Java, Siam, and the Philippines. Differing materially from each other in manners, habits, and almost always in language, and dialect, and entertaining towards each other provincial prejudices and antipathies; broils and quarrels, sometimes even attended with bloodshed, frequently break out among them. These are occasionally subjects of embarrassment in the European settlements; but nothing is to be apprehended from their systematic combination or resistance; for of all the Asiatic inhabitants of our eastern dependencies, the Chinese are the most obedient to the laws, and, notwithstanding the superior amount of their property, and even of their numbers, afford the least employment to the courts of justice.

The emigrant population from China is of a peculiar description, consisting, for the most part, of adult males, and of very few women, or children, a circumstance easily explained.—The laws of China, which prohibit emigration in general, are a dead letter, as far as the men are concerned; but it is imperative in respect to women and children, or, perhaps, more strictly, the manners and feelings of the people themselves, prevent the latter from quitting the country. The person who gives this part of the evidence, and who had resided many years in the British dependencies, states that he had never seen or heard of a female among the emigrants, and never saw a Chinese woman, except at Hué, the capital of Cochin China, where two or three were pointed out as objects of curiosity, who had been kidnapped, and brought there when children. The emigrants, however, without scruple, form connexions with the females of the country, and the descendants of these repeatedly intermarrying with Chinese, are in time not to be distinguished from the genuine Chinese, either in features or complexion. But in countries where the settlers have been only recently established, the disproportion of the sexes is immense. Thus, out of the 6,200 Chinese inhabitants of Sincapore, the number of females is but 360, and even of these, the greater part are Chinese only in name. The number of emigrants who return to China, though considerable, is very small in comparison with the arrivals. Even of those, the greater number come back again. There are resident in the British settlements, Chinese emigrants, men of property, who have visited China, and returned with titles.

The evidence details a great number of facts relative to the culture and exportation of tea, highly worthy of notice. The excellency of the herb is attributed chiefly to the attention paid to its culture; hence it is, that though the tree itself is a hardy plant, thriving under a great variety of climate, the marketable commodity produced from it is very inferior in all other countries to that of China. Like the grape, it also differs in flavour from difference of soil and management, and there is as much difference between the choice teas conveyed overland to Russia, and those sent to Europe, as between the claret and Burgundy wines of France. It is also said that the fla-

vour of the plant is much deteriorated by the sea voyage.

As to the prices, which involves a great political and commercial question, now agitated with much energy, we must refer our readers to the document itself, which will, in this and other respects, amply repay the trouble of disentangling the facts, from the tedious and complicated tissue of question and answer in wh ch they are involved.

*The Picture of India; Geographical, Historical, and Descriptive.* 2 vols. post 8vo.—London, Whittaker, Treacher and Co.

This is a sensible and valuable compilation, on a subject which is not generally well understood; and which derives additional interest at present, from forming a principal topic of legislative inquiry, consequent upon the approaching application for a renewal of the company's charter. The work embraces a vast variety of information on the history, geography, climate, soil, productions, languages, and condition of the native population, as well as on the relative position of their British governors, and the nature and extent of the European power in India. This part of the subject is put prominently forward in the introduction:—

"Not only the chief commerce, but the actual sovereignty of the greatest and most valuable portion of India, is in our hands; and we exercise a controul over the rest, which, judging from the past, must, if the present state of matters continue, soon assume the name of that sovereignty, of which it is even now the reality. From the evidence of all past history, as well as from the issues of all Indian wars since the British power was what we may call consolidated in India, it may be assumed as true, that there is not a prince within the whole natural limits of the country, nor a ruler over any portion of the two hundred millions of inhabitants, but really holds his throne, under whatever name it may be held, by sufferance of British power, and must render it up, upon whatever terms may be proposed, the very first time that that power is manifested against him. It avails nothing to say that patriotism, the spirit of the Indian people, would or may rise up; for in the course of more than two thousand years the people of that country have shown no patriotism; and, though we had not a good reason for arriving at the conclusion upon other grounds, that would be about as strong a proof as such cases admit of, that they have none to shew: and why should they?—it would be of no advantage to them. There might be intrigues, as there have been, arising from the ambition of native adventurers: and, as has been the case before, these might be fomented by other enemies of Britain in times of war; but 'the sinews of war' are now under her controul, and without these, little could be done with a people who have been passive in their transfers from one conqueror to another, whether foreign or domestic, since the days of Sesostria.

"This is an extent of empire, or rather a numerical tale of subjects, of which the annals of the world hardly afford a parallel. Russia, whose territorial extent is probably the greatest, does not number one third of it; and the greatest empire of antiquity, or that of the Moguls at its utmost extent, was probably still more inferior—at least it is certain

that when the Mogul Emperor happened to be a weak man, half his provinces were in a state of revolt.

"The mere controul of such a multitude of human beings by a regular and resident sovereign, through the medium of ministers and officers who were of the nation, and had, as it were, a hereditary knowledge of their customs and dispositions, would be a most momentous matter, and one would be apt *a priori* to look upon it, as a political machine that would fall to pieces by its own weight; and, if it were a colony, in which the natives, or descendants of the governing state, distant little short of a twenty thousand miles' voyage, were not to the native population, who know nothing about the governing country, in a rate so high as one to six thousand; and furthermore, if the said natives had been a great and a civilized people, for ages before the governing country had had a name among independent nations, the continuance of the colonial government would seem little short of a miracle.

"But vast as the one of those modes of sway would appear, and miraculous as the other, they are not by half so vast or so singular as the government of what is called the British Empire in India. There is no sovereign there, and not so much as a viceroy; and the rulers of those two hundred millions have not necessarily, in virtue of the authority by which they rule, so much as a vote in the meanest parish vestry in England. They are twenty-four private gentleman, who require to have no other status, name, or influence, in their own country, than the possession of as much stock in the company, and as much influence among the stockholders, as shall entitle and enable them to hold office as Directors of 'the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies.'"

The next six chapters are devoted to a geographical and topographical description of India; the eighth to its mineralogy and soil; the ninth, to its climate and seasons; the tenth, to its scenery and vegetation; the eleventh, to its zoology, and having thus discussed the physical character of continental India, the twelfth and last chapter of the first volume is devoted to the out-settlements of British India, consisting of Ceylon, the Prince of Wales' Island, Singapore, the Andamans, and Macao in China. The second volume treats of the history and population of India; but for the present we shall confine ourselves to the former one, and as a specimen of the light agreeable style in which the book is written, we shall select a portion of the author's description of the elephant, and the mode of catching him, taken from the chapter on the Zoology of India:—

"To give a description of the elephant would seem superfluous: man has been familiar with it from the remotest times; it has been the auxiliary of armies, the pride of princes, the servant of merchants, and one of the chief attractions of every menagerie. All sorts of persons, from the sage to the showman, have thus combined to set forth the appearance, the magnitude, and the sagacity, of the elephant, till, if the brute that roams the thick forests of India could it read, it would really not know its own history. From so many and so interested and ignorant sources, it would be vain to expect any thing either very true or very consistent; and probably the

most wild and wretched romance in the circulating library is not a more wide caricature of human nature, than the majority of written accounts are of the elephant.

"As the elephant is the largest, and, estimating him as a mass in motion, the most powerful of land animals, there has been a great tendency to endow him with those superior attributes, which fancy, without regard to the facts, is so very apt to associate with mere magnitude. He has been styled the wisest and the most lofty-spirited of brutes, and his reasoning powers have been stated as more than matter of imputation. As to the reasoning, one fact is decisive: the elephants of the present day have no more understanding than they had in the time of Darius. As for the independence, again, it has just as little foundation: the elephant is at first tamed by fear and starvation; and his motions are directed by an iron hook, which his driver thrusts into his forehead to push him on, and into his ear to turn him aside. The story of their not breeding in confinement, from delicacy or haughtiness, or any other intellectual cause, is not true, as they have bred in that state both in ancient and modern times; and the cause of their doing it so seldom is physical—they are not sufficiently fed, and too hard worked.—Even what is told of a sexual paroxysm taking place at a particular season annually, in male elephants, is not true; for in their native forests the elephants breed at all seasons; and it has been ascertained that the period of gestation in the female is about twenty months and a half. The age to which they live has not been fully ascertained; but there is reason to believe that it is not less than two hundred years. According to the observations that have been made, the maternal feelings of the elephant are very blunt.

"The form and covering of the elephant, are well fitted for enabling it to make its way through jungles and forests. Its head forms a battering ram; and in order that the brain may not suffer pain from the concussion, the frontal sinuses are extended to two large cavities.—The projections formed by those cavities, are probably one of the causes of that imaginary wisdom which is imputed to the elephant, as they lead those who are not acquainted with its structure, to suppose that the cerebral mass is anteriorly very much developed. But the "sagacious facial line" has nothing to do with the brain of the elephant, that organ being remarkably small, not more than one twenty-third of that of the human subject, in proportion to the weight of both. And yet the senses of the animal are wonderfully acute.—Of the sense of taste in animals, we know less than of any of the others; but the great partiality of the elephant for sugar canes, for the sake of which it leaves the forest, and ravages the cultivated fields, and its fondness for sweet things, show that it has a power of election in its eating. The sense of sight is very quick, though, from the position of the eyes, and the shortness and stiffness of the neck, it is limited in its range backwards, except near the ground. It sees the rider, or the load upon it, with difficulty, if at all. Its hearing is very acute, and thus it has a very great discrimination of sounds; and there have been instances of one once domesticated escaping, being taken again in the usual manner, and at once obeying its old keeper, though till then it had given no sign of ever having been in human training, or

having the least knowledge of the snare in which it had been formerly caught. Indeed the principal sagacity of the elephant seems to depend upon the power of following a certain sound with a certain act. An elephant, which was, some years ago, butchered in London, probably in consequence of ignorance on the part of those about it, listened to the voice of its keeper, even when it had been irritated and mortally wounded.

"The sense of smell is very wonderful, and is no doubt the one by which the course of the animal is chiefly guided in those places where sight would be useless, and hearing of little more avail, on account of the rustling that it self must make. Thick as the hide of the elephant is, it is far from invulnerable. The insects of the jungles give it a great deal of annoyance, and put it to many shifts in order to get rid of them. Indeed, when left to itself, and where it has plenty of food and water, the hide of the elephant is soft; and it is dry and chapped in confinement, only because the animal does not get proper food, or enough of exercise to promote digestion. With the exception of the human hand, and the express organs of feeling in animals that have to grope for their way and their food, there are few organs in nature in which the sense of touch appears to be more acute and delicate than in the trunk of the elephant, especially in that part of it which serves as a hand."

"Notwithstanding its great strength, and the formidable weapons with which nature has furnished it, the elephant is a harmless, and even a retiring animal; and, unless when alarmed for its own safety, it wages war upon no other living creature. The extensive and thick forests are its chief abode; and the places of India where it is most abundant are the moist forests in the south-east of Bengal, and some parts of the western Ghauts; but more especially the former. The forests on the Tiperia hills, on the south of the Silhet district, have long been the place where the principal continental supply of elephants has been obtained; and there they are still numerous, being found in herds of about a hundred in number. They are, like many of the other animals that live entirely upon vegetables, gregarious; and the herd are generally found to follow the oldest pair as leaders, and to go readily wherever they lead the way. In their marches through those forests, tangled as they are with underwood, sight would be of little avail; and therefore their means of communication are scent and sound. Food, friends, and foes, appear to be detected with great certainty, and at a considerable distance by the former; and the latter also admits of considerable variety. An elephant has three cries. The one is rather clear and shrill—a trumpet note, produced wholly by the trunk, and emitted when the animal is in good humour, and all is safe. The second is a growl or groan, issuing from the mouth, and is the cry of hunger, or an intimation to the rest when one has come upon an abundant supply of food; the third sound is loud as the roaring of the lion; and is the war cry by which the animal prefaches his own hostilities, or calls his associates to his aid. They are seldom found far from each other, unless in the case of males that are expatriated, as is the case with deer and some other animals; and those often quit the forest, and are caught by using three or four tame females

as a decoy. Even alone, in these cases, the beasts of prey—even the tiger, notwithstanding his agility and strength—will hardly venture to attack the elephant. The male receives him on his tusks, tosses him into the air, and stands prepared to stamp his fatal foot upon him, the instant that he touches the ground. The female elephant has no tusks upon which to receive an enemy; but she has the art to fall upon him, and crush him by her weight.

In their native forests, where they are in herds, the elephants are invincible to all enemies, but man. If one gives an alarm, others hasten to the spot, and where they act in concert, the carnivorous animals keep their distance. In those places man is the only inhabitant of the earth by whom they can be subdued; and he owes his superiority chiefly to an element which the lower animals have never been able to engage in their service. Man, even in his most savage and uncultivated state, rues one piece of wood against another, till one or both be ignited; he applies the match, so lighted, to a bundle of sticks, or to the reeds, brushwood, or grass, and the stoutest and most daring animals own his sway and shrink from thus the symbol of his dominion. When we reflect on the power and the security which this single and simple operation of the lighting of a fire gives to man in those parts of the world that are infested by ferocious animals, we cannot help being struck at the vast superiority which the possession, even of the lowest degree of reason, has over the perfection of mere animal courage and strength.

What means were used by the ancients for the capture of elephants, we are not informed; but the method now practised is not a little curious; and, probably, it is the same that has been employed, upon a great scale, from time immemorial. A *keddah*, or trap, is formed in some place near to the forest which is the haunt of the elephants. This usually consists of three inclosures, the first of them is of considerable dimensions; the second smaller; and the third leads to a passage so narrow as that a large elephant cannot turn round in it; and they are all very strongly formed of stakes and beams; and the large ones, except at the entrances, are fortified by deep ditches. Those ditches are on the inside, and the earth which is dug out of them forms a high bank, upon the top of which are the palisades. The principal entrance is so formed that it seems merely an opening through the bushes—a passage by which the huge animals may escape from that annoyance, by which they are driven into captivity.

To get the elephants into this *keddah* is a matter of nice management, as well on account of their power as of their timidity, and the acuteness of their hearing and smell. Men who are familiar with the forests, and know their haunts, are employed to find them out; and that being done, the herd is surrounded with a cordon of pickets, who open communications with each other, and keep fires constantly burning. As soon as the herd is surrounded, another inclosure is formed in advance toward the *keddah*. It is made smaller than the first, and formed only to a semicircle; and when that is done, the former pickets open out to both sides, till the two inclosures are united. The next step is to bring up the rear of the first inclosure, which is done by beating drums, shouting, waving firebrands, and every other means by which animals that are so retiring as the elephant can be annoyed. Care must be taken,

however, that the herd is not alarmed; for were that the case, it would dash through the cordon, and not merely escape, but be fatal to the pickets. It is, therefore, urged on so gently as that it merely moves away from the noise, but continues to browse the leaves and twigs as it moves along. In this slow and cautious manner the elephants are brought forward till the entrance of the *keddah* forms part of the circle. When they are brought there, the noise toward the rear is redoubled, and the motion of the whole accelerated, till the leaders of the herd enter into the opening, which they do with some caution; but the moment that they have done it, they are followed by all the rest, upon which the opening is strongly barricaded, and fortified on the outside by a line of fire, which is also extended along the greater part of the inclosure, excepting towards the second one, that being the direction in which the herd is intended to be driven.

In passing them from this inclosure to the next one, it is necessary to use expedition, as they generally presume that there is danger, and sometimes break through every thing and escape. Accordingly, a constant display of noise, fire, and smoke, is kept up, by voices, drums, guns, flaming and crackling branches of green bamboos, and every device that can increase the effect. The animals take several turns round the first inclosure, with a view of escaping; but they are assailed at every point with demonstrations of fire, by which they are at length driven into the second inclosure, and that is shut upon them in the same way, and guarded by the same means. Around that the noise is redoubled, in order to urge them on to the third.

As that is usually much smaller than the others, and presents no opening by which they may escape, even to another place of confinement, the animals now find that they are completely in the snare, and their indignation knows no bounds. Their roarings drown the clamour by which they are surrounded, and they rush towards the ditch and the palisades in all directions, with so much impetus and fury, that hardly any contrivance of man would appear able to resist them. The people are, however, upon the alert, and their assault is stopped by the great enemy, fire. The contest is carried on till the animals are completely fatigued, and have recourse to a tank, or drain of water, which is prepared for the purpose in order to quench their thirst and lave their throbbing sides, which latter operation they perform by squirting the water all over them with their trunks. But, though exhausted, they are not yet subdued; they growl and threaten, and often attempt to escape; but the fire and the clamour meet them whenever they approach the fence, and they subside into a sullen humour.

Their hunger is now worked upon; and though some food be given them, they may be considered as tantalized rather than fed. When they have been kept in this manner for a greater or less number of days, according to the humour which they evince, the bars that close up the narrow passage are withdrawn; food is thrown in by some men on a scaffold over the opening, and one of the elephants is tempted to enter. The door closes behind him, is instantly barricaded against him, and there is no return. He cannot advance far, in consequence of bars that are put across a little in front of him, and he cannot turn round. He, therefore, tries

the battering-ram—first, backwards, against the gate, in order that he may join his brethren; and then forward against the bars. But as an elephant once brought thus far is reckoned a prize, and as it is known that the efforts which he will make for the regaining of his liberty will be pretty much in proportion to his value, the barriers are made proportionably strong, and he is left to exhaust himself in powerful, but unavailing, attacks upon the bars.

In the chapter on scenery and cultivation, we noticed the following observation on the similarity of a custom of the Cachmireans, and our own dear Irish mountaineers:

“It is rather a singular coincidence, that the candle of the peasantry on the hills to the south of Cachmire, and that of those of some parts of the high lands of Scotland and of Ireland should be the same—namely, a slip of the central part of a pine; and the only thing wanting to render the coincidence perfect, is, that the candle of the Scots and the Irish is ancient, and dug out of the bog, while that of the Indian is recent. The herbaceous oil plants, such as flax and mustard, as well as those that are raised for the sake of more pungent or aromatic oils, fall more naturally within the description of Hindū industry.”

We hope to return to these interesting volumes soon again, and recommend them strongly to the attention of all who wish for popular information on the subject of British India, in an agreeable form and in brief compass. The volumes are beautifully brought out, and embellished with an excellent map, and several engravings and woodcuts. They are also done up in cotton boards after a new fashion, in imitation of vellum, and with the pleasant flavour of Russia leather. At least our own copy is one of the prettiest and most odorous of the mountain of books upon our table.

*The Library of Entertaining Knowledge*, vol. 5. Part 1. *The New Zealanders*. London: Knight.

This work forms No. 9. of the Library of Entertaining Knowledge, and contains an abstract of the information received on this interesting nation of savages from Tasman, the first discoverer of New Zealand, Cook, De Surville, Marion, down to Captain Dillon, whose narrative we lately reviewed, and chiefly making a text book of the adventures of John Rutherford an English sailor, who lived several years in the country, and only returned to England in the year 1828. The introduction to the work is a sensible well written Essay on the progressive civilization of nations, bearing particularly on New Zealand, and animadverts severely upon the conduct of Colonists in general, both ancient and modern, in blindly oppressing and then vilifying the aborigines of the countries which they visit. Some scandalous instances of such want of principle are given in the course of the book, we choose that of M. De Surville, who is represented as a man of talent and courage, and yet the respect every where due to human nature seems to have ceased with him, as with others, when out of the pale of European laws.

During the gale, a boat, in which were the invalids of De Surville's crew, in attempting to make from the shore to the ship, was very nearly lost; but contrived at last to get into a small creek, which hence received the name of